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Modality and Point of View: A Contrastive Analysis of Japanese Wartime and Peacetime Newspaper Discourse

Noriko Iwamoto

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MODALITY AND POINT OF VIEW: A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF JAPANESE WARTIME AND PEACETIME NEWSPAPER DISCOURSE

Noriko Iwamoto (DAL)

Abstract

This paper demonstrates the existence of a wartime register in Japanese journalism and characterizes its major linguistic and stylistic features. Special emphasis is placed upon the aspect of modality as related to point of view. Modality expresses the mode within which the propositional content of a sentence is presented as certain, reliable, or authoritative, and it functions to regulate interpersonal relations in a language community. Point of view indicates a particular way of conceptualizing and refers to world-view or ideology. In relation to, or as a part of, modal functions, the following issues are considered: point of view, certainty and probability, deontic and epistemic modality, and the use of classical style. To demonstrate the special features of modality in the wartime register, a diachronic comparison is made with texts from peacetime discourse.

1. Introduction

A linguistic study of the wartime propaganda in Japanese newspapers during the Second World War is the main focus of the research investigation. Newspaper genre usually presents itself as being 'neutral', similar to the art of taking photographs in which the camera is said never to lie. However, contrary to our assumption that reporting is objective, such neutrality can often be a surface disguise, especially in the case of wartime propaganda. The reality manifested in wartime newspaper reports is merely a 'representation' (Leech and Short 1981, Fairclough 1989, Halliday 1994) of reality because of the ideological and institutional dimensions involved in creating the text. In wartime discourse, journalism not only plays a significant role in maintaining public morale but is also an active participant in the construction of the war effort. In the Japanese presentation of news, journalistic reports implicitly reconstruct reality by foregrounding death as a sacrifice, as glorious and noble, and the enemy as weak, and by obscuring threatening situations by backgrounding defeats and losses. This reconstruction is done to regulate and control the ideas and behaviour of people, and to form a strong sense of solidarity in the nation. In wartime Japan, as in many countries at war, maintaining public morale was seen as more important than pursuing and reporting the truth. Taketora Ogata, vice-president of Japan's premier newspaper, *The Asahi Newspaper*, later State Minister in charge of the Information Bureau, declared before the Diet that 'an active press was essential for maintaining the fighting spirit of the people' (*The Asahi Newspaper*, 9 September 1944). The mechanism and function of 'an active press', i.e. propaganda, is defined as 'organized persuasion; the spreading of ideas and values through a variety of devices' (Lee and Lee 1939, quoted in Devito 1986: 239). Thus, propaganda is a highly institutionalized and conventionalized mode of presenting discourse so that the leaders of the time can manipulate people's thought and behaviour in a covert way. This can be achieved with remarkable stylistic sophistication. For example, in issuing battle reports, the Japanese army used an inflated bombastic style that included the use of superlative adjectives such as 'the morale of our troops is most vigorous'. The army reports, in general, lacked objectivity because maintenance of public morale was important (Shiba 1978: 7-8). In an 'active press', linguistic resources are exploited to structure, transform, and sometimes mask reality so that newly created discourse can articulate and legitimize new orders of reality that will meet the demands of a particular social situation, such as consolidating the power of the state to wage war. For example, within the framework of transitivity, the register of wartime Japanese journalistic discourse constantly foregrounds the Japanese side as *Agent* (the one who performs a purposeful action) and not as *Patient* (an entity affected by the act of *Agent*), even in defeat in battle, e.g. 'we [*Agent*] made a

final gallant attack', 'ten enemy battleships [*Patient*] were destroyed', and 'enemy [*Patient*] casualties total 200'. By contrast, in the context of peacetime journalism non-Japanese are often thematized as *Agent* (Iwamoto 1995). This switching of *Agent* and *Patient* and of thematizing in situations of war and peace provides evidence that foregrounding and backgrounding news events is an instrument of state power in a wartime society, while journalism in peacetime is obviously not harnessed to a war effort.

Data for analysis is drawn from *The Asahi Newspaper*. It is interesting to note that the Japanese newspapers written in English were still being published during the war, including *The Japan Times and Advertiser* which was later called *The Japan Times*. They contained contemporary official English translations of the reports from the Imperial War Headquarters. Sometimes I have used the official English versions of these newspapers. However, given the fact that these official contemporary English versions were not written by native speakers of English, there are some mistakes in the English. Where necessary, I have made changes within square brackets to clarify what was said, e.g. 'Elsalem' [*sic*, Jerusalem], 'the Potsdam Proclamation' [*sic*, the Potsdam Declaration]. Also, in some places, meanings are garbled in the translation from the original Japanese versions. In these places I have used my own translation to keep the original meaning.

This paper focuses on the subject of modality as related to point of view. Modality is interpreted fairly broadly as a speaker's means of expressing an attitude towards the propositional content of the utterance he or she makes, and as a mode that functions to regulate the interpersonal relations in a language community. The organization of this paper is as follows. Firstly, the term 'modality' is defined. Secondly, some general characteristics of Japanese propaganda are introduced in terms of epistemic and deontic modalities and the use of classical language. Thirdly, the relationship between modality and point of view is discussed, using the model by Simpson (1993). In the application part of the paper, this theoretical model will be applied to the analysis of newspaper texts, to demonstrate the distinctive patterns of modality and point of view adopted in wartime texts. Since characterization necessitates comparison, a diachronic comparison is undertaken for data analysis by comparing texts from wartime with those from peacetime (i.e., pre-war and post-war periods). This study then concludes that the war register adopts stronger modality whereas the peacetime register in general adopts weaker modality.

2. Modality: basic concepts

Modality is an important linguistic tool for realizing the interpersonal function and expressing social roles between the addresser and the addressee. It is a broad expression of a speaker's attitude towards the situation or event described by a sentence or about the proposition expressed by the sentence (Halliday 1970, 1976; Halliday and Hasan 1985). Modality can be both epistemic and deontic[1] and most modal expressions can be used in both ways. For example, there are ambiguities or semantic blends in the interpretations of the sentences, 'John must have a bath every day' and 'The president must be John' (See Halliday 1970, 1976 for detailed analysis). In Japanese wartime propaganda, for example, this type of semantic ambiguity is exploited in reports on Japanese defeats, as will be explained in the use of deontic modals in section 7.4.

It is important to note that there are various ways of expressing modality or varying degrees of the addresser's commitment to the proposition: auxiliary adverbs, adjectives, verbs, nouns, verbs. In addition, there are other less known means of conveying full commitment to the validity of a proposition such as *emphatic affirmation, generic reference* and *presupposition* (see Simpson 1990 for details). In this study my attention is restricted to auxiliary verbs as the main tool for realizing modality.

My hypothesis concerning modality is that the more critical the war situation became, the more high-value modality (i.e. modality indicating the strong commitment of the addresser) was used in wartime discourse in Japanese newspapers. Modality also expresses the mode within which propositional content is presented as authoritative (Hodge and Kress 1979: 85). Modality also functions as a manifestation of power and 'establishes the degree of authority of an utterance' (ibid.: 122). This function of modality was particularly salient in the cases of Japanese wartime propaganda.

3. Modality and power: Japanese wartime propaganda

3.1 Deontic and epistemic modalities

In wartime Japan, an 'active press' played the role of a war weapon in the ideological war (Shillony 1981). Wartime leaders and journalists used language for persuasion and coercion to make people react as the leaders wanted them to react. The audience was made to perform rather than being informed by the 'active press'. Wartime leaders used the modal aspect of language deontically or to express strong epistemic commitment, e.g. 'We must win', and rarely to represent a weak epistemic commitment 'We may receive an attack'. A deeper analysis of this use of language is given in the application part of this study.

3.2 Classical style and modality

Another important feature of Japanese propaganda is the use of classical, academic styles of language. The style was frequently observed in the wartime register in Japanese newspapers during the Second World War, in particular in the reporting of major war events by the Imperial War Headquarters. The classical style used by the Japanese Imperial Headquarters refers to the old-fashioned written form commonly used in the Heian period (9th-12th centuries). The use of the classical style of language is prevalent in the area of function words such as particles and auxiliary verbs, as well as in content words such as verbs and nouns that were especially coined from ancient texts.

As discussed in section 2, the ways in which full commitment to the proposition of the sentence is expressed are varied. The use of classical language style can also be considered as a technique for realizing modal function which conveys strong epistemic commitment. That is because the classical language style bears the modal effect of certainty, powerfulness, heaviness and authority with its high-flown rhetorical flavour and its decorative style. My basic assumption is that, as Foucault says, 'it was not knowledge that gave the text its signifying function, but the very language of things ... from the seventeenth century onward, the whole domain of the sign is divided between the certain and the probable' (1970: 59). The use of classical language is related to 'certainty' or a strong form of modality, whereas use of a modern style would give a feeling of 'probability' or a weaker form. Unlike the classical language style, modern colloquial style is easy for to common people to access.

George Orwell (1944: 7) said in 'Propaganda and Demotic Speech' that propaganda in general is inclined to adopt a 'bombastic style with a tendency to fall back on archaic words' or 'stilted bookish language which is remote from the popular everyday language'. This may be termed 'centralized, bureaucratic language'. In fact, 'the deader the written language - the farther from the speech - the better' (Anderson 1991: 13) when it comes to institutionalists controlling people and their ideas through language. Elaborated high-sounding terms have the function of disguising the emptiness of proposition, at the same time creating a sense of power or authority. Here, 'elaboration of style outweighs the subject matter and thematic content' (Hervey *et al.* 1995: 70). It is often in the interests of institutionalists that written and formal communications should be as ambiguous as possible to maintain a sense of authority. The features of a wartime register, which may be typical of

authoritarian domains like Japan of the 1940s, can be illustrated by comparing wartime and peacetime registers.

Japanese war reports were issued mainly as announcements by the Imperial War Headquarters, the Army, or the Navy, or by way of special telegraphs from local correspondents. These announcements were published as lead stories on the front pages of newspapers, in the particular style of the classical Japanese language. This was particularly so at critical points.

If modality is an interpersonal feature of language, it can be suggested that classical language was used to manipulate the hierarchical structure of Japanese society. Through the connotations of 'certainty', 'heaviness', or 'bookishness', the point of view implied is one that emanates from above (the emperor and the government) down to the ordinary people as 'commands'. The use of classical language in the Second World War created the impression of 'intellectual snobs who were to "talk down to" the masses' and had a distancing or obfuscating effect that was designed to control people. (Orwell 1944: 20). In contrast to this 'language of hierarchy', peacetime language can be viewed as 'the language of solidarity', with fewer connotations of heaviness and certainty since peacetime language uses a less official, more informal and casual style[2]. The difference of attitude in interpersonal relationships between wartime and peacetime derives from a difference in point of view.

4. Modality and point of view

4.1 'Point of view' as an indicator of authorial bias

In the simplest sense, point of view indicates a speaker's or writer's special way of conceptualizing a world-view or ideology. Fowler says 'language does not allow us to say something without conveying an attitude to that something' (Fowler 1977: 76). No text or fiction is considered to be objective, neutral, or value-free. It is basically the writer's point of view, 'angle of vision', 'angle of telling', world-view, or authorial interest that determines the essence of a story's style and that provides the story with its particular 'feel and 'colour' (Simpson 1993: 5). Genette (1983) observes:

> The story is presented in the text through the mediation of some 'prism', 'perspective', 'angle of vision', verbalized by the narrator though not necessarily his ...

The studies of point of view were originally developed as a tool for analysing narratives (cf. Uspensky 1973). The theoretical model of point of view, nevertheless, may have wide applications in the areas of political and institutional discourse. In this study I use the model in the analysis of printed media discourse.

4.2 Internal and external points of view

In relation to the analysis of point of view, two basic concepts are of particular importance: internal and external points of view. Internal focalization suggests that the story is regulated and mediated by the first-person narrator's view, and often represents a subjective, fixed point of view as the source of the narration is the centre of consciousness of a narrator or a certain character. This viewing stance is characterized by the use of first-person pronouns (*I, we*) and *verba sentiendi* (words expressing feelings, thoughts, and perceptions, e.g., *feel, suffer, think*). External focalization represents an objective, neutral, and panchronic stance outside the consciousness of participants involved in the story, from which the events and characters are described (Simpson 1993: 39). The next section clarifies the relationship between point of view and modal expressions.

4.3. The model of modality and point of view by Simpson

Modality and point of view have an inseparable relationship. Simpson systematized the relationship between these two topics by developing Fowler's original model of 'point of view'. According to Simpson (1993: 46), 'much of the "feel" of a text is attributable to the type of point of view or authorial interests it exhibits'. With regard to the relationship between authorial attitude and modality, Coates (1983: 32) says a statement that expresses strong obligation is subjective whereas a statement that expresses weak obligation is objective as far as the speaker's involvement is concerned.

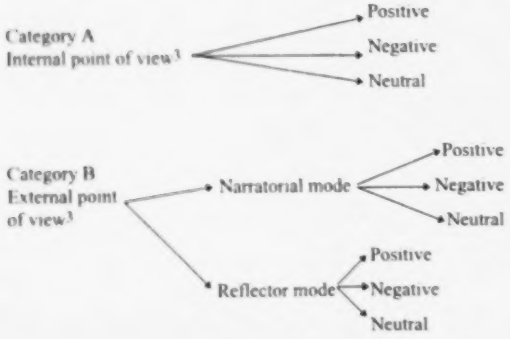
Figure 1 schematizes the relationships between modal systems and the non-linguistic concepts that each of the modal systems realises.

Modal system	Non-linguistic concepts represented
DEONTIC ---------->	obligation, duty, and commitment
BOULOMAIC ---------->	desire
EPISTEMIC ---------->	knowledge, belief, and cognition
PERCEPTION ---------->	perception

Figure 1. The relationship between the modal system and non-linguistic concepts (Simpson 1993: 51)

The definitions of 'boulomaic modality' and 'perception modality' in the above figure are as follows. Boulomaic modality, as a supplement to deontic modality, expresses the desire or wishes of the speaker, as in 'I hope...', 'I wish...', 'I regret...'. Perception modality is a subcategory of epistemic modality, and expresses the degree of commitment to the validity of a proposition, based on some reference to human perception (Perkins 1983: 81 cited in Simpson 1993: 50). Examples of perception modality are: 'It is obvious that his critique is right', 'Apparently his critique is right'.

The following is a slightly simplified and revised model of point of view realized by modality, as developed by Simpson.



Positive shading:
deontic, boulomaic systems foregrounded; *verba sentiendi* present

Negative shading:
epistemic and perception systems foregrounded; supplemented
with generalized 'words of estrangement' (words expressing uncertainty and alienation,
e.g. *maybe, perhaps*, etc.)

Neutral shading:
unmodalized categorical assertions dominant; few *verba sentiendi* and evaluative adjectives and adverbs

Figure 2. A model of point of view (Simpson 1993: 56, 75)

Category A stories represent stories written with an internal point of view and Category B stories indicate stories written with an external point of view. Category A stories are subdivided further on the basis of three patterns of modality: positive, negative, and neutral shadings. It may be important to reiterate that I am taking a model that has been used to analyse fictional stories and adapting it for the analysis of printed media discourse. The terms 'positive, negative and neutral shading' are taken from Simpson (1993) and the explanation of each category is as follows. The term 'shading' is used as equivalent to 'mode' (i.e. a particular style), and is adopted simply to differentiate lexically from 'mode' as in 'Narratorial or Reflector mode'.

Category A: Positive shading

Category A positive stories are characterized by the rich use of evaluative adjectives and adverbs (e.g., *happily, vain, terrible*), *verba sentiendi* (defined above) and the deontic and boulomaic modalities of obligation, desire, duties, and opinions (*you must..., I want ...*). By contrast, the use of the epistemic and perception systems is rare (*possibly, maybe, perhaps, evidently, might have been*). To put it simply, the use of 'words of estrangement' or the more 'alienating' forms of epistemic and perception modality is suppressed, and 'the resulting narrative is more co-operatively oriented towards the reader through its clear realization of obligation, duties and desires' (Simpson, op. cit.: 56-58).

Category A: Negative shading

Category A stories with negative shading are characterized by the use of epistemic and perception modalities that are not found in Category A stories with positive shading. This type of point of view exhibits the following linguistic features: epistemic modal auxiliaries, modal adverbs, and modal lexical verbs such as *I wonder, I think, I assume, I suppose*; perception adverbs such as *evidently, perhaps, apparently* ; human perception verbs such as *it looked like (as if), it seemed, it appears*. Since this type of point of view is basically internal, 'the bewilderment and estrangement devices from within a participating character's consciousness' signify his/her uncertainty about events or characters in the story (ibid.: 58).

Category A: Neutral shading

A third Category A story is the neutral-shading one. The criteria for the recognition of such a story is the absence of narratorial modality, which means that the narrator/reporter suppresses subjective evaluation, opinions or judgements on events or characters in the story, and tells the story only through 'categorical assertions' (i.e., 'something is or is not') (Lyons 1977: 763, 809). Categorical assertions are 'epistemically non-modal' assertions or propositions (Simpson 1993: 49), and express the strongest degree of speaker's commitment to the factuality of the proposition (Lyons, op. cit.: 808-809). For example, 'it is raining' is epistemically stronger than modalized 'it must be raining' (ibid.: 808). So the style of neutral shading in Category A exhibits the 'flat, unreflective, cool, distanced and detached' narration of the first person pronouns (Simpson, op. cit.: 62, 75). There are few uses of *verba sentiendi* and evaluative adverbs and adjectives. This type of text displays 'extended sequences of straightforward physical description with little attempt at psychological development' (ibid.: 62, 65).

Category B stories

Category B stories are a little more complicated than Category A stories. Firstly, Category B stories are subdivided into two modes: narratorial and reflector. The former implies a viewing position 'outside the consciousness of any of the characters' while the latter indicates a position that is 'mediated through the consciousness of a particular character' (ibid.: 62). The term 'reflector' was taken up by Simpson (op.cit.: 55) to identify a character whose psychological perspective is expressed in a text. The two Category B modes occur in three subcategories: positive, negative and neutral, producing a total of six types of Category B stories.

Category B: Narratorial mode, positive shading

This type has a lot in common with its Category A counterpart: it has evaluative adjectives and adverbs and a foregrounded deontic and boulomaic modality. The difference from its Category A counterpart lies in 'externality'; the narration is in a third-person voice that adopts a position outside the consciousness of any of the characters.

Category B: Narratorial mode, negative shading

This type of narration is recognized by 'words of estrangement' and the absence of detailed description of the thought of characters. It has a lot in common with Category A negative stories in that epistemic and perception modal systems are given prominence and a sense of 'alienation' is conveyed. In addition, there are words of estrangement to distance the reader with an external perspective or a modalizer for negative shading. Maynard (1993) calls them 'quotative explanation markers'. These markers include, for example, 'it may be that...', 'it will be that...', 'it is said that...', 'it appears that...', 'it is supposed to be that...', 'to say...'. These 'quotative explanation' markers express varying degrees of uncertainty or commitment on the writer's part regarding the proposition to be made. For example, by saying in Japanese *to iwarete iru* (it is said ...), it is understood that the speaker 'represents a view accepted by others, [and] shows little commitment of the speaking self'; 'a certain level of objectification' of the propositional content is thus realised (ibid.: 251). So these 'quotative explanations' pragmatically and interactionally function as devices to 'accommodate to others and to show sensitivity' to the certainty of the proposition and the reader's or hearer's feelings. Maynard says that these quotative explanations, including *'to yuu'* ('to say',) or weaker modalizers, suggest the existence of a detached point of view or plural voices, where a multitude of voices proliferates. Maynard notes, especially in relation to Japanese:

> the availability of the quotative explanation offers an environment conducive to mixing different voices intrasententially. ... the Japanese language producer and consumer alike are likely to have easy access to the fluidity of viewpoints as expressed by different voices within a single utterance

(Maynard 1993: 252).

Category B: Narratorial mode, neutral shading

This narratorial mode is the most impersonal, as a narrator uses little or no modalized language; there are few *verba sentiendi* or evaluative adjectives and adverbs. It lacks direct description and analysis of the thought and feelings of characters. This corresponds to Rimmon-Kennan's 'objective' (neutral, uninvolved) focalization as opposed to 'subjective' (coloured, involved) focalization (Rimmon-Kennan 1983: 80). This narratorial mode is supposed to be the ideal journalistic style 'in terms of its factuality and objective approach' to the events and characters that journalists are trying to describe (Simpson 1993: 68).

Category B: Reflector mode

As this type of narration is not directly related to this study, unlike Category A stories and Category B stories in the narratorial mode, only a brief explanation is given here. Each of the three subcategories of Category B reflector mode has much in common with its counterpart in the Category B narratorial mode and Category A stories when it comes to the use of modal expressions. The main difference is clearly that, in Category B reflector mode, the story is 'mediated in the third person through the consciousness of a Reflector' (Simpson, op. cit.: 69; see the reference for more details).

The theoretical model and tools presented so far (modality in relation to the use of classical language style and point of view) will be applied to systematizing the difference between wartime and peacetime international conflict discourses in Japanese newspapers in section 6.2.

5. Method of analysis of diachronic comparison

Characterization necessitates comparison. The existence of a wartime register is confirmed by looking at and comparing the styles of newspapers of three different but proximate periods: pre-war (just before the war), wartime and post-war (just after the war). Comparison of these three periods is necessary to demonstrate that the emergence of a wartime register is due purely to the demands of a wartime society, to the need to consolidate state power and control people, and not due to simple language change resulting from historical change. The 'pre-war' period refers to the time up until December 1941, when Japan entered all-out war with Britain and America in addition to China.

I will analyse texts from the following periods for the purpose of comparative analysis of register types:

June 1941 to December 1941	8th December 1941 to August 1945	15th August 1945 to 1946
pre-war 'peacetime'	war period	post-war peacetime
'prelude' to war with US & UK --> peacetime register	all-out war with US, UK, China, and USSR -->wartime register	peacetime register

Table 1. Register types in news articles in Japanese newspapers in the 1940s

6. Application: the use of modal structures in Japanese newspaper discourse

The theoretical ideas discussed so far are now applied to Japanese wartime and peacetime discourses in newspaper texts to justify what is shown on Table 1.

6.1 Analysis of modality

My basic findings on the subject of modality are as follows. In wartime propaganda, deontic or strong epistemic modality is frequently used, for example through classical forms, to express an assertive attitude. In peacetime non-critical discourse, by contrast, weaker epistemic modality is standard. (See *interpretation* below.)

6.2 Modality and point of view in Japanese wartime and peacetime discourses

This analysis of modality may be deepened by applying Simpson's (1993) idea of modality and point of view. This helps to clarify the fundamental difference between points of view in wartime and peacetime texts as expressed through the modal systems.

6.2.1 (A) Wartime propaganda in newspapers

Consistently Category A internal perspective and positive shading of commitment is expressed through the following features:

(a) a foregrounded deontic and boulomaic modality (e.g. 'We shall never surrender');

(b) modality of strong epistemic commitment realized by the use of classical auxiliary verbs or particles (e.g., -seri, -tari) and the absence of the more 'alienating' form of epistemic and perception modality;

(c) subjective namings: we versus them or the enemy as pronouns and other namings for interpersonal markers (first-person narration);

(d) evaluative adverbs and adjectives (e.g., triumphantly, valiantly, our powerful troops);

(e) The Japanese side almost always takes the role of Actor /Agent while the enemy is Patient, so that the whole discourse has a positive connotation. (The transitivity pattern in wartime propaganda has been explained in the Introduction; see Section 1 for description of Agent and Patient).

6.2.2 (B) Peacetime rhetoric in international conflict/competition discourses in news articles in newspapers

The Category B external perspective with a neutral or negative shading of narratorial mode of non-commitment (although it shifts to 'internal point of view' in an extremely 'nationalistic' context) is expressed by means of the following features:

(a) use of weaker epistemic and perception systems, and categorical assertions supplemented by 'words of estrangement', which produce a cool and distanced tone (e.g., it seems..., it may be...);

(b) use of objective reference (e.g., nation's names such as 'Japan' or 'the US') instead of subjective references such as we or them (i.e., the third-person narration);

(c) less use of evaluative adverbs and adjectives;

(d) The Japanese can take the role of Patient while their opponent can be Agent in a passive situation for the Japanese; roles are assigned explicitly.

These findings accord well with Coates's observation that a statement that expresses strong obligation is subjective (i.e., the internal point of view; the whole nation shares the same ideology and goal in wartime) whereas a statement that expresses weak obligation is objective (i.e., the external point of view) as far as the addresser's involvement is concerned (see section 4.3 above). The former may be the case for wartime propaganda while the latter may be the case for peacetime non-critical discourse.

The difference in types of modality between wartime and peacetime discourses is due to the difference in the functions of language between these periods. In wartime, the function of language is instrumental and directive, which means the writers of the texts (propagandists) intend to influence the public through the words expressed. By contrast, in peacetime (apart from times of serious national crisis), the function of language is simply referential and informative; the principal purpose of news articles in newspapers in this period is to report what has happened without obfuscation.

6.3 On Japanese modal expressions

The appendix lists the main auxiliary verbs, particles, and verbs in both modern and classical Japanese that appear in my data for the analysis of modality. Their modal meanings and tense and aspectual meanings are listed. The topics of tense and aspect are a subject for a separate study. In the appendix, nevertheless, all the meanings, including modal, tense, and aspect, are listed because the use of particles and auxiliary verbs (suffixes) used in classical Japanese itself can be important modally as a means of exerting control regardless of meanings[4]. Also, some auxiliary verbs have both modal and tense and aspectual meanings. For example, *tari* (classical particle) is used both for expressing 'completion' (aspectual meaning) and 'assertion' (modal meaning). Note that in Japanese, auxiliary verbs come at the end of a sentence attached to a verb, unlike English, since Japanese has a basic SOV sentence structure. For example,

(1) *Wareware wa* *kata-neba naranai*
We TOPIC win MUST
'We must win' (Modality expressing obligation)

See the appendix for further comments on grammar.

7. Exemplification

I now look at the illustrative data from newspapers that provided the grounds for these findings. As noted earlier, three periods were examined. Firstly, let us consider the data from the so-called pre-war period before Japan entered an all-out war.

7.1. Texts from the pre-war period: before Japan is engaged in all-out war

The modal expressions and points of view adopted for war reports on Britain, Germany, America, and the Soviet Union from the pre-war period are now examined. Examination of these texts reveals that features of the wartime register were not used in the pre-war period; negative shading of narratorial mode based on an external point of view can be found. First, whereas auxiliary verbs and particles of classical style were used in war reporting texts (discussed below) in order to create an effect of strong modality, the same features but in modern language were used to describe situations

other than Japan's direct involvement in war. It appears that the greater the involvement, the less ordinary the language in reports. Examples 2 and 3 report on fighting involving the UK, Germany, and Russia in the Middle East and Russia. The underlined parts indicate the type of point of view adopted: particles, objective/subjective naming and transitivity markers.

Ex. 2

EIGUN CHIRUSU[5]SENRYOO
BRITISH ARMY CAPTURED TYRE

Eigun, De-Gaulle rengoogun no Syria sakusen wa chakuchaku shinkoochuu de genzai made no senkyoo tsugi no toori

The operation in Syria by the Allied Forces of the British army and De Gaulle is making steady progress, and producing the following war gains:

(1) *Syria, Trans Jordan kokkyoo o toppa shita rengoogun wa kokkyoo fukin ni yuusho Teramo o senryoo-shita*

(2) *Mata hoka no ittai wa Damascus toonan 40 mairu no Murzug o kooryaku shita*

(*The Asahi Newspaper* 10 June 1941)

(1) The Allied troops of the British Army and De Gaulle passed beyond the border between Syria and Transjordan, and captured Teramo, an important strategic city around the border.

(2) Another army troop [*sic*, i.e., unit] captured Merajayoun, 40 miles southeast of Damascus.

(Translation from *The Japan Times and Advertiser* of the same day)

Ex. 3

DOKUGUN 10 KIRO NI SEMARU
THE GERMAN ARMY REACHES A POINT 10 KILOMETERS FROM MOSCOW

(1) *Toobu sensen ni okeru dokugun sakusen wa seikoori ni shinpo- shiteiru.*

(2) *Dokugun wa Leningrad hoot o keizoku, Leningrad shi wa sudeni dokugun hooka no motoni obiyaka sarete-iru.*

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 6 September1941)

(1) German operations on the Eastern Front are making successful progress.

(2) German forces continue to encircle Leningrad, and the city is being menaced by German artillery fire.

(Translation from *The Japan Times and Advertiser* of the same day)

The point of view adopted in these discourses is external with negative shading. There is no use of classical particles, such as *nari, tari* or *shiteri*, to give a strong sense of commitment. The use of proper nouns (*German forces, British army, Moscow*) also supports the idea of the presence of the external point of view.

There is another news story from the 'pre-war' period that reports President Roosevelt's ordering of the freezing of Japanese assets in the US in July 1941, when the relationship between the US and Japan deteriorated just before the war. The point of view assumed here is also external with negative shading.

Ex. 4

EIBEI NIHON SHISAN O [accusative marker, ACC, hereafter] *TOOKETSU*

Roosevelt Daitooryoo wa, daitooryoo rei ni yori 25 nichi yoru zaibei nihonshisan no tooketsu o meeji-ta. Migi hoorei wa 26 nichi kara kooryoku o hassuru, migi ni taishi howaito hausu kara tsugi no gotoki setsumei ga hasse-rareta....

BRITAIN AND US FREEZE JAPANESE ASSETS [ACC]

President Roosevelt issued an executive order freezing Japanese assets in America on the evening of 25th July. This act will take effect on 26th July .... The following explanation was given from the White House....

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 27 July 1941; my translation)

The point of view adopted here is also external with negative shading for the same reasons as in the previous examples (Exs. 2-3): (1) the use of proper nouns ('Japan', 'US') instead of 'we' and 'enemy', (2) the modern particles (*ta, rareta*) which have weaker modal functions are used instead of classical ones; classical auxiliary verbs are not used for reports on countries not yet directly at war with Japan. This means that somewhat weaker epistemic modalities are used toward countries not directly fighting with Japan. (3) Japan's side is *Patient* here, as exemplified by the use of the accusative particle, *o*, as in '*Nihon no shisan o*' (Japanese assets (ACC)). Hence here the words are used to describe occurrences or changes in the world and words, rather than to make changes to the world.

Since Japan was not directly at war with Britain, America, or the Soviet Union during this period, reports describing war activities of these countries sometimes employed weaker modality, as manifested in the use of *-de aroo, -daroo* (it may be that...), *-to naroo* (it will be that ...), *-to iwarete iru* (it is said that...), *-to mirarete iru, -to omowarete iru, ... moyoo de aru* (it seems that..., it appears that...), ... *hazu de aru* (it is supposed to be...); i.e., 'modal words of estrangement' to distance the reader, with the use of an external perspective (Fowler, 1977: 93-95; Weber, 1989: 97; Simpson, 1993: 42). As explained in section 4.3, these so-called 'quotative explanation' markers express varying degrees of uncertainty or commitment on the writer's part as to the proposition to be made. Hence, 'a certain level of objectification' of the propositional content is realised (Maynard 1993: 251). The following are texts that contain examples of these quotative explanations, weaker modals, or 'words of estrangement' from peacetime discourse.

Ex. 5

WAGA TAI EE SAKU CHUUSHI

EE TAISHI CHIKAKU GAISOO HOOMON

Konoe shin naikaku ni yotte tenkai sareru Nihon no gaikoo hooshin wa zen naikaku irai kakuritsu sareta konponsaku ni kichoo o oki, Nihon no Eebee ni taisuru taido wa henka o minai de aroo to Eeekoku wa mite iru ga.... Shikashi Ee seefu to shitewa izen to shite Nihon no dookoo ni gishin anki

no katachi de. Nihon no shin i ha'aku ni tsutomete ori. Kluge taishi wa kono Ei seifu no i o ukete, saikin no kikai ni Toyoda gaisoo to kaiken o okonai Eekoku gawa no kyokutoo joosee ni tatsuru kenkai o tsutae, katsu Nihon no tai ee saku dashin o okonau koto ni naroo ...

[BRITAIN] EYES OUR POLICY TOWARDS BRITAIN

BRITISH AMBASSADOR TO VISIT [JAPANESE] FOREIGN MINISTER IN NEAR FUTURE

Japan's new foreign policy under the new Konoe Cabinet, follows the established policy of earlier cabinets. Britain sees that there will be no change in Japan's attitude towards Britain and USA. But the British government is still suspicious of Japan's move, and is trying hard to probe Japan's intention. Ambassador Kluge, responding to such a request from the British government, will have a talk with Foreign Minister Toyoda, and will report British views on Far East policy and probe Japan's British policy....

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 22 July 1941; my translation)

This is an example of an external point of view with negative shading. In addition to weaker modals such as *aroo, naroo* (it may be that...; it will be that...), objective naming such as *Ee, Eekoku* (Britain), and *Nihon* (Japan), instead of saying 'us' and 'them', are used, with one exception in the headline. The following are examples of similar patterns of point of view (external, negative-mode).

Ex. 6

FUTSU EI KAISEN HISSHI NO KEESEE
EIGUN SYRIA KOKKYOO E SHUUKETSU

FIGHTING BETWEEN FRANCE AND BRITAIN IMMINENT[6]
(AS) BRITISH TROOPS MASSED AT SYRIAN BORDER

Haifa (Palestine) yori Beirut ni tasshita joohoo ni yoreba, eigun wa mokka ...Transjordan fukin no Jordan gawa keekoku ni idoo shuuketsu shitsutsu aru moyoo de aru. Nao, De-Gaulle shoogun oyobi Catoru shoogun mo chikaku Jerusalem no eikokugun, shireibu ni touchaku no hazu de aru to uwareru. Doitsu wa ... Eigun ga kore[i]oo Syria shin'nyuu no kisee o misereba, tokui no dengekisen o kankoo subeki to seesan o yuushite orumono to omowareru. Toruko no taido wa mottomo chuumoku sare, ... Syria ni sensen kaishi no hawai wa Girisha no sai to onajiku chuuritsu o genshu surumono to mirareteiru

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 6 June 1941)

British soldiers are presumably gathering in ... the valley district of Transjordan, according to a report from Haifa (Palestine) reaching Beirut. Also, it is said that General de Gaulle and General Catre are soon to join the British headquarters at Elusalem [*sic*, Jerusalem]... Germany ... is believed to be well prepared to make a lightning movement in the event of the British showing signs of invading Syria. The attitude of Turkey is now keenly watched, ... and in case fighting starts in Syria, Turkey is expected to remain neutral, as in the case of Greek operations [*sic*, *original*: operations in Greece].

(Translation from *The Japan Times and Advertiser* of the same day)

These data include 'modal words of estrangement' that are typical of negative-shading (underlined). The use of these 'modal words of estrangement' means that the propositional content of a report is not guaranteed. These texts report on a conflict in which Japan was not directly involved; these are

events that took place outside the sphere of Japan's commitment. In war discourse about conflicts in which Japan is involved, there are very few examples of such 'words of estrangement' even when the propositional content of a report is uncertain, just as in the peacetime discourse in the above examples. By contrast, during wartime, from a simple physical point of view, the information network is easier to cut off or simply restrict, because of material scarcity. Therefore, the relative reliability of information becomes shakier than in peacetime. Despite all this, ironically, the frequency of stronger modality increases in wartime. This may be because during war, as examples below show, dramatic, strong assertion is needed to mobilize the people of the nation. Concern for the certainty or credibility of the news is subordinated to the emergent demands of war discourse. This is possibly because less direct forms are less persuasive. Weaker modal verbs imply that there may be other possibilities that the nation can take, and hence objectivity comes in, and thus the compelling force becomes weaker. Objectivity is a challenge to a government attempting to mobilize or unify a nation. Only an external point of view can admit the existence of diversity and alternatives. By contrast, 'certainty' is a product of narrow-mindedness or a positive, internal point of view.

7.2 Texts from wartime newspapers when Japan is at all-out war with the UK, the USA, and China

Once Japan starts war with the U.S. and Britain, the use of such weaker modalizers or low-value modals dramatically decreases in reports of battles with the US and UK; instead, strong modalizers or high-value modals, including the use of classical auxiliary verbs, increase in reports of major events. The use of modals such as these implies that in war discourse, there is no shift or 'fluidity' of viewpoints as expressed by different voices. If Maynard's observation (that Japanese language has easy access to a fluidity of viewpoints) is correct, the phenomenon of the lack of weaker modalizers in war discourse suggests how this style 'deviates' from the 'normal' usage of the Japanese language.

The hypothesis can be formed that 'the language of hierarchy' with strong modalizers is a product of war discourse, whereas 'the language of solidarity' with weaker modalizers is a characteristic of peacetime discourse. The following are typical examples of texts issued by the Imperial War Headquarters, written with an internal point of view with positive shading. They contain classical auxiliary verbs (underlined and marked by [CL]), which create an image of strong assertion or certainty, and hence a strong epistemic commitment to the proposition of the war reports. They use first-person narration as typicalized by the use of *waga, ware* (we) and *teki* (enemy).

Ex. 7

BEI TAIHEIYOO KAIGUN KOOKUU HEERYOKU NI TAISURU GEKIMETSU SEN'I [CL]

Teki *eiku kaigun kookuu heeryoku ni atae* *taru* [CL] *sengai*
Zenkuu bakugeki ni yori enjoo *seshimetaru* [CL] *mono yaku 450 ki, gekichin* *serumono 14 ki, kono hoka gekicha* *serumono* [CL] *tasuu, hakumune 16 too o enjoo* *seshime* [CL] *2 too o hakaisu* [CL]

US PACIFIC FLEET IS WIPED OUT

Damages inflicted over [*sic*, i.e. on] the enemy's army and naval air forces:
approximately 450 planes were set on fire either by bombing or machine-gunning, and 14 shot down; besides the foregoing, many planes were destroyed. sixteen hangars were set afire and two destroyed.

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 19 December 1941;
translation from *The Japan Times and Advertiser* of the same day)

Ex. 8

PHILLIPINE TOO SHUTO MANILA KANZEN NI SENRYOO

BEI NO TOOA KYOTEN KAIMETSU-SU [CL]

Teekoku rikugun Hitoo senryaku butai wa 2ka gogo shuto Manila o kanzen ni senryoo shi, sarani Corregidor too yoosai oyobi Bataan hantoo no yoosai ni yoru teki ni taishi koogeki o shinkoochuu-nari [CL]. *Teekoku rikugun butai wa saku futsuka gogo irai zokuzoku Manila shinai ni totsunyuu shitsutsu-ari* [CL].

MANILA, THE CAPITAL OF THE PHILIPPINES, FULLY OCCUPIED;
AMERICAN BASE IN EAST ASIA DESTROYED

The Imperial Army forces operating in the Philippines completely occupied Manila, the capital of the islands, on the afternoon of 2 January, and they are now keeping up their onslaught upon the enemy in Corregidor and Bataan, the enemy's strongholds near Manila. Imperial Army units have been entering the city of Manila one after another since the afternoon of 2 January.

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 4 January 1942; my translation)

Ex. 9

DAIEE TEEKOKU NO IKKAKU KUZURU

HONG KONG NO EEGUN KOOFUKU-SU [CL]

A CORNER OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE CRUMBLES
BRITISH ARMY IN HONG KONG SURRENDERS

Hong Kong too no ikkaku ni yotan o tamochitsutsu-arishi [CL] *teki wa waga chuuya o watazaru* [CL] *mookoogeki ni yori hon 25nichi 17ji 50pun tsuini koofuku o mooshi idetaru* [CL] *o motte gun wa 19ji 30pun teesen o meeji-tari* [CL].

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 26 December 1941)

The enemy, who had been offering vain resistance [*original Japanese text*: to our unremitting attack] after being cornered in one section of Hong Kong Island, finally proposed surrender [*original*: to our troops] at 5:50 p.m., Thursday, being unable to further withstand the furious onset of our army forces. As a result, an order to cease firing was issued to our fighting forces at 7:30 p.m.

(translation from *The Japan Times and Advertiser*, 26 December 1941;
translation of headline is mine)

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Ex. 10

GILBERT NI SENKA KAKUDAI
TARAWA TOO NI GEKISEN TSUZUKU

FURTHER MILITARY ACHIEVEMENTS MADE ON GILBERT ISLANDS
FIERCE BATTLES CONTINUE ON TARAWA ISLAND

(1) Teekoku sensuikan wa 25nichi mimee Makin too seehoo kaimen ni oite, teki kookuubokan isseki o koogeki shi kore o taiha seshime-tari [CL]

(2) Teekoku kaigun kookuu butai wa 26nichi yuukoku Gilbert shotoo seehoo kaimen ni oite tekki-kidoo butai o koogeki shi kookuu bokan ni seki o gekichin-seri [CL].
Waga hoo no songai: mikanki ikki nari. [CL].

(3) Teekoku kaigun kookuu butai wa 27 nichi yuukoku Gilbert shotoo seehoo kaimen ni oite sarani raishuu shi koreru tekkidoo butai o koogekishi hidari no senka o e-tari [CL]

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 30 November 1943)

(1) An Imperial submarine at dawn on November 25 attacked an enemy aircraft carrier in the sea area west of Makin Island and heavily damaged it.

(2) Imperial Naval Air Units attacked an enemy mobile force in the sea area west of the Gilbert Islands on the evening of November 26 and sank two aircraft carriers (one of them instantaneously).
Loss on our side: one plane that has not yet returned.

(3) Imperial Naval Air Units also attacked another enemy mobile force that came attacking in the sea area west of the Gilbert Islands on the evening of November 27 and achieved the following war results.

(Translation from *The Japan Times*, 30 November 1943)

In this way, the propositions containing classical auxiliary verbs such as *nari, tari, seri* (copular, assertion, or completive markers), *ari* (copular), *zaru/zari* (negation), *seshime* (causative) with the Japanese side as Actor/Agent, suggest epistemically stronger commitment based on positive shading, thus they add a powerful, positive connotation to the discourse. There are no classical auxiliary verbs in war propaganda used to denote weaker modality or 'words of estrangement': presumption/hearsay (*nari* ; another meaning of *nari*) or conjecture or probability concerning an action or state in the present as well as in the future (*mu, ramu*), or supposition (*meri, rashi, mashi*). So it can be stated that the point of view implied in the above data is an internal point of view of positive mode. Of course, the uses of *waga, ware* (we), and *teki* (enemy) indicate the presence of the internal point of view.

7.3 Use of deontic modals to prescribe future events

Some examples are now given of deontic modality, by which the speaker or the writer decides which future events are necessary, possible, or desirable. Deontic modality is important in war propaganda in order to regulate the behaviour of the populace. It is commonly used in wartime propaganda to

prescribe future events while in peacetime discourse epistemic modality (e.g., 'It will be...', 'It may be...', 'It is expected that...') is used. The following are reports written with an internal point of view with positive shading using deontic modality. When the battle of Okinawa was close to total defeat, the following report appeared in the newspaper:

Ex. 11

Okinawa hantoo ni koogun to tomoni teki taigun o gekigeki, kesshi kantoo o tsuzukeru dooken juumin tachi no arukoto o <u>wareware</u> wa wasuretewa <u>naranai</u>.

<u>We should not</u> forget the Okinawan people, who have been continuing to fight bloody battles in cooperation with the Imperial Army against a big enemy army.

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 14 June 1945; my translation)

In fact, this report was made when the situation in Okinawa was extremely bad. Only nine days after this report, on 23 June 1945 Okinawa was conquered by the Americans. The use of the deontic modal verb, *We <u>should not</u>*, is a typical example from Simpson (1993)'s 'internal, positive perspective.' The use of the first-person pronoun 'we' also confirms the presence of this perspective. Other examples of deontic use of language are:

Ex. 12

KONO TATAKAI <u>KANARAZU KATSU</u>
ICHIOKU NI KAKU SENTOO NO KIRYOKU <u>[MOTOMARERU]</u>

<u>WE SHALL DEFINITELY WIN</u> THIS WAR
EACH ONE OF A HUNDRED MILLION PEOPLE <u>SHOULD</u> HAVE FIGHTING SPIRIT

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 9 April 1945; my translation)

Ex. 13

MAZU BAN'NIN NO MINI <u>NARE</u>
<u>MOTTO HOSHII</u> ATATAKAI SHINSETSUSHIN

<u>PUT YOURSELF</u> IN THE PLACE OF TEN THOUSAND PEOPLE
MORE CARING HEART <u>IS NEEDED</u>

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 6 May 1945; my translation)

Even a big defeat was reported with deontic modality, which expresses a strong obligation to the people of Japan, rather than with weak epistemic modality. In relation to point of view, these findings accord well with Coates's observation that a statement that expresses strong obligation is subjective (i.e., the internal point of view with positive shading), whereas a statement that expresses weak obligation is objective (i.e., the external point of view with negative shading) as far as the speaker's involvement is concerned (previously mentioned in section 4.3). The former may be the

case of texts of wartime propaganda from which these examples are drawn, while the latter may be the case of peacetime non-critical discourse texts.

There is an interesting example of deontic modality in the data that reports the final defeat of Okinawa. The ambiguity or neutrality of modal expressions discussed in section 2.2 is exploited here.

Ex. 14

[Waga shubi butai wa] teki no waga shujinchinai shintoo o yurusuno yamunaki ni itareri.

We had to allow the enemy to penetrate into our main position.

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 26 June 1945; my translation)

There is a double instance of deontic modality here. 'Allow' presupposes causation and volition on the part of the Subject (i.e., 'we made it possible for the enemy to penetrate into our main position.'). 'Had to' seems to imply a *Patient* role. However, 'had to' (= 'it was necessary, inevitable') is neutral as between a *Patient* or *Agent* Subject (see section one, the Introduction for the transitivity patterns of Japanese wartime propaganda). For example, it is not clear in 'I had to visit my mother' whether the necessity was decided (or created) by me, by my mother, or by circumstances. So the example in this data 'allows' the deontic interpretation of positive shading; 'We decided it was necessary to let the enemy penetrate into our main position' These examples of modality again confirm the presence of the internal, positive perspective in which 'we' are in command of the whole situation.

7.4 Texts from the post-war period

Once the war ends in August 1945 and there is no more war reporting by the Imperial War Headquarters, the use of modality returns to what it used to be in the pre-war period:[7] from high-value modality to low-value modality[8] from stronger modality to weaker modality, from classical style to the modern style that was used before the war (ex. *-seri, -tari, -nari -> -aru, -aroo, -(shi)ta ; -su -> -suru*), and which is quite similar to usage in modern style, even in reporting critical issues on international relations. The point of view adopted here is external with negative shading. Below are examples of texts about issues with the U.S. and Britain after the war. They report on the administrative plans for Japan by the allied nations (the occupation forces) after the war.

Ex. 15

JIYUU SHUGI O JOCHOO SHOOREE

FUTOO NA KANSHOO OKONAWAZU

MA(CARTHUR) GENSUI KANRIHOOSHIN O HAPPYOO

LIBERALISM IS ENCOURAGED
NO UNREASONABLE INTERFERENCE INTO JAPANESE AFFAIRS WILL BE MADE BY THE U.S.
GENERAL MACARTHUR ANNOUNCES THE OCCUPATION PLAN

(1) *MacArthur gensui wa nihon kanri hooshin ni kanshi hidari no seeshiki seemee o happyoo-shita* ...

(2) *Ten'noo heeka oyobi Nihon seefu wa MacArthur gensui no shiree o kyooyoo sareru koto naku jisshi surutameno arayuru kikai o teekyoo-sareru....*

(3) *Nihon kokumin ni taishite wa rengoo koku ni taisuru sonkee oyobi shinrai o zoodai suru ga gotoku taiguu-suru.*

(4) *Nihon no gunkoku shigi oyobi gunkokuteki kokka shugi no konzetsu wa sengo no datiichi no mokuteki de-aru ga, senryoogun no ichi no mokuteki wa jiyuu shugiteki kyokoo o shooree suru kote de-aru....*

(5) *Nihon kokumin wa... shikashi MacArthur gensui no shiree ni motozuki Nihon seefu kara hasse rareru issai no hooritsu, fukoku, meeree ni shitagau hitsuyoo ga- aru.*

(6) *Senryoo gun wa koofukubunsho no jookoo o jisshi suru. Potsdam sengen ni noberareta sho mokuteki ga tassee sareru hi made senryoogun wa Nihon ni todomaru de- aroo.*

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 11 September 1945)

(1) General MacArthur issued an official statement outlining the Allied policy concerning the occupation of Japan as follows....

(2) Every opportunity would be given the Emperor and the Japanese Government to carry out the orders of the Supreme Commander without further compulsion....

(3) [The Allied Forces] will treat the Japanese people (ACC) in a manner aiming at developing their respect for and confidence in the Allied nations.

(4) The abolition of Japanese militarism and military nationalism is the primary objective in the postwar period. The primary aim of the Occupation Forces is encouraging liberal tendencies....

(5) The Japanese must obey all orders, proclamations and laws issued by the Allied Supreme Headquarters to the Japanese government [*sic, original Japanese text says*: The Japanese must obey all orders, proclamations and laws issued by the Japanese government at the command of General MacArthur].

(6) The Occupation Forces will carry out the aims outlined in the statement for surrender. The Occupation Forces will be stationed in Japan until the day when objectives outlined in the Potsdam Proclamation [*sic*, Declaration] are attained.

(Translation from *The Japan Times*, 12 September 1945; translation of headline is mine)

Ex. 16

EIGUN, NIHON SHINCHUU KETTEE
SOREN, CHUUGOKU RYOOGUN WA FUSANKA

BRITISH COMMONWEALTH SET TO SEND FORCES TO OCCUPY JAPAN;
SOVIET UNION AND CHINA WILL NOT PARTICIPATE

(1) ... *Nihon senryoo ni kanshi Beekoku seefu oyobi Eeteekoku o daihyoo suru Gooshuu seefu tono aida ni kyootee ga seeritsu shi Eikoku gun ga Nihon senryoo ni sanka shi, Nihon ni shinchuu suru koto ni kettee-shita*....

(2) *Kono Ei shinchuugun wa MacArthur gensui o saikoo shireekan to suru Nihon senryoo no ichibu o nasu mono de-aru.*

(*The Asahi Newspaper*, 2 February 1946)

(1) ... Regarding the occupation of Japan, the agreement was reached between the US government and the Australian government, acting on behalf of the British Commonwealth Government concerned. It was agreed upon that the British Commonwealth Forces will participate in the occupation of Japan....

(2) The British Commonwealth Occupation Forces will form part of the occupation forces in Japan under the Supreme Command of General Douglas MacArthur, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers.

(translation from *The Japan Times*, 2 February 1946; translation of headline is mine)

These texts from the post-war period just after Japan's final defeat contain totally different discoursal and modal patterns from wartime propaganda. These texts describe a defeated Japan that is *at the mercy of* the Allied nations after its acceptance of the Potsdam Declaration. The whole discoursal pattern is based on Simpson's 'negative shading', in which weaker epistemic and perception systems are foregrounded, added with words of estrangement (e.g., *de aroo*: it will be that), and so the words seem to reflect the world (Japan's situation). There is use of a deontic modal, as in (5) 'The Japanese must obey...' in example 15. But here, General MacArthur is the person who gave the order, and *the Japanese are simply the Patient who are supposed to take the order*. So, seen from the perspective of the Japanese, the world (Japan's situation) is described from an external point of view with negative shading. This is apparent in several features.

In the first place, no classical auxiliary verbs are used the way they were in wartime reports issued by the Imperial War Headquarters. The use of modern particles instead (*-shita, -suru, -aru, -sareru, de aroo*, underscored) in these texts 15-16 conveys a lower degree of certainty, powerfulness, and authority.

In addition, the point of view adopted by the reporter is understood as more external and objective, as shown by the neutral naming of countries: 'Japan', 'Japanese people', 'British Army', 'China', 'Soviet Union', and 'US Government', instead of the 'we', 'our people', and 'the enemy nations' that were commonly used in wartime propaganda. Also, future events are predicted with a weaker modal, such as '*de aroo*' (it will be that') as in examples 15 and 16. This differs from wartime propaganda, where future events are prescribed with deontic modals such as 'we should ...'. Finally, as explained in the Introduction, Japan's side is described with passives in which Japan is the *Patient*, such as '*Nihon seefu wa ... sareru*' (the Japanese government will not be forced ... and be provided with ...) and the dative-marker (traditionally called Indirect Object) *ni* is attached to Japan, as in '*Nihon kokumin ni taishite*' (towards the Japanese people; see (3) of example 15). Through such linguistic expressions, the whole discourse is based on the negative shading of the external point of view, where words are used to describe occurrences in the world (Japan's situation), which is just the opposite of war propaganda, where words are used to make changes to the world.

8. Conclusions

The findings described in this paper lead to the following conclusions.

(1) Strong modality is employed toward a country directly at war with Japan , with abundant use of classical stylistic features (examples 7 - 14).

	peacetime	wartime
modality used in general	weaker epistemic modality, negative-mode use of modern style	deontic or strong epistemic modality, positive-mode much use of classical style
prediction of future events	**epistemic** *-de aroo, daroo* (it may be that.., it will be that...) *-to naroo* (it will be that...) *-to mirarete iru* *-to naru moyoo de aru* (it is expected that...)	**deontic** *- de arubeki, - subeki,* *- o nasubeki,* *- neba naranai* (we should..., it should be...) *We should win* *We should not forget about soldiers who are fighting hard...*
reports of past events	**weaker epistemic** *- ta* *- aru, - suru*	**strong epistemic** *- seri, -seru* [CL] *- tari, -nari, -su* [CL]

Table 2. Differences in modality between wartime and peacetime

(2) In terms of Simpson's theory on the relationship between modality and point of view as applied to Japanese war discourse, the point-of-view from which it was written was an internal and positive one (in the sense that the world should change to fit the words expressed), as shown by the type of modality employed. In Japanese war discourse, as opposed to peacetime discourse, modalities of deontic and strong epistemic commitment are foregrounded.

Table 2 summarizes these observations. It shows that modality, a realizer of the interpersonal function of language, and point of view are closely interrelated.

Notes

1 Epistemic modality indicates the means by which speakers/writers express judgement on the truth of the propositions they utter/write. Deontic modality is concerned with the criterion by which speakers/writers decide which future events are necessary, possible, desirable, etc.

2 Higa (1972) shows how postwar democratization in Japan transformed the function of language from 'a means of exhibiting authority and an instrument of social control into a means of communication even with the masses' (50).

3. Simpson (1993) uses the terms 'homodiegetic' and 'heterodiegetic' instead, with slightly different meanings from 'internal' and 'external' point of view respectively.

4. Maynard (1993), in chapters called 'Style As Discourse Modality *Da* and *Desu/Masu* verb forms' and 'Interactional Particles: *Yo* and *Ne*', discusses how stylistic differences in verb-ending forms (plain versus polite style) and in sentence-final particles (those expressing mutual agreement versus assertive attitude) respectively, contribute to aspects of Discourse Modality and Modal Contextualization (her own phrases).

5. This is a place 70 kilometers southwest of Beirut in Syria (now Lebanon), on the Mediterranean coast.

6. At this time Britain and France were hostile towards each other following the landing of the British troops in Syria (Lebanon) in June 1941, which was France's mandate.

7. In nonwar reporting during the war period such as city news, the newspaper did not use the same type of modality as it used in the war reporting texts. No classical forms were used in nonwar reports. This supports my observations.

8. The terms are taken from Carter and Simpson (1989: 287)

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APPENDIX

Auxiliary verbs, particles and verbs used in the analysis of Japanese modal expressions

Modern Japanese

- (*de*) *aru*	copulative
- (*te*) *iru*	present progressive, continuative perfect
- (*te*) *aru*	continuative perfect
- *suru*	*do*
- *da*	copulative
- *ta*	past, perfect
- *naranai*	*has to*: permission, obligation, prohibition, responsibility
-nai, -nu, -zu	negation
- *seru, -saseru*	causation
- *reru, - rareru*	passive, potential
-to yuu	*to say*
- *no yoo-da, - aroo, -naroo*	*it seems*: inference, conjecture
- *yurusu* (verb)	*allow*: permission

Classical Japanese

- *semu, - sen*	*will, shall*: intention about future event
- *nu, -zu*	negation
- *ari*	copulative
- *yamunashi, -naranu*	*has to, ought to*: obligation, responsibility, propriety
-yurusu (verb)	*allow*: permission
- *seri has done*:	perfect
- *seru*	(abbreviation of *-shiseri*, meaning *have done*)

- nari	copulative: may be used in any situation where a copulative expression is called for
- tari	(i) copulative: used only to describe a temporary state (Komai and Rohlich 1991: 330)
	(ii) perfect
	(iii) continuative perfect
- seshimeru < *- shimu*	causative: *make someone do something*

Note:

In the 'continuative perfect', the verb phrase denotes the remaining result of the completed action rather than the action itself. For example, by saying '*mado ga ai-iteiru / ake-teiru*' (the window is open), it means that 'the window opened and as a result it is now open' (Komai and Rohlich 1991: 222-3). See Soga (1983), Hinds (1986), Jorden and Noda (1987) for more on basic Japanese grammar.